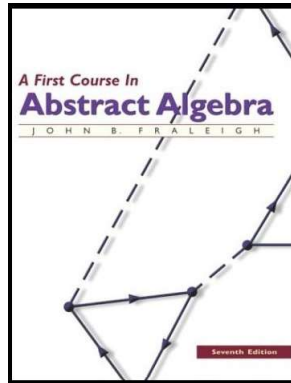


# Introduction to Modern Algebra

## Part IV. Rings and Fields

### IV.20. Fermat's and Euler's Theorem



## Theorem 20.1. Little Theorem of Fermat

**Theorem 20.1.** If  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $p$  is a prime not dividing  $a$ , then  $p$  divides  $a^{p-1} - 1$ . That is,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$  for  $a \not\equiv 0 \pmod{p}$ .

**Proof.** By Corollary,  $1, 2, 3, \dots, p-1$  forms a group of order  $p-1$  under multiplication modulo  $p$ . Since the order of any element in a group divides the order of the group (Theorem 10.12), for  $b \neq 0$  and  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_p$ , we have  $b^{p-1} = 1$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_p$ , or  $b^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Now  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  that both as additive and multiplicative groups (recall that the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}/p\mathbb{Z}$  are the cosets of the form  $a + p\mathbb{Z}$ ). So for  $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $a \in 0 + p\mathbb{Z}$ , we have  $a^{p-1} \in 1 + p\mathbb{Z}$ . That is,  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ .  $\square$

## Theorem 20.6.

**Theorem. 20.6.** The set  $G_n$  of nonzero elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  that are not 0 divisions forms a group under multiplication modulo  $n$ .

**Proof.** First, we show  $G_n$  is closed under multiplication. Let  $a, b \in G_n$ . Suppose  $ab \notin G_n$ . Then there is some  $c \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  such that  $(ab)c = 0$  since we have assumed  $ab$  is not a division of 0. Now  $(ab)c = 0$  implies that  $a(bc) = 0$ . Since  $b \in G_n$  and  $c \neq 0$ , then  $bc \neq 0$ . But with  $bc \neq 0$  and  $a(bc) = 0$ , we must have  $a$  a 0 divisor (i.e.,  $a \in G_n$ ) and  $G_n$  is closed under multiplication.

Now to show that  $G_n$  is a group. Associativity of multiplication modulo  $n$  is inherited from  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  ( $G_1$ ). Since 1 is not a 0 division, then  $1 \in G_n$  ( $G_2$ ). If  $a \in G_n$ , then let  $1, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_r$  be the elements of  $G_n$ . As in the proof by Theorem 19.11, the elements of  $a1, aa_1, aa_2, \dots, aa_r$  are all different, for if  $aa_i = aa_j$  then  $a(a_i - a_j) = 0$  and since  $a \in G_n$ , then  $a_i - a_j = 0$  or  $a_i = a_j$ . So  $aa_j = 1$  for some  $0 \leq j \leq n$  (where  $a_0 = 1$ ), and so  $a$  is not a 0 divisor then of course the inverse of  $a$  is not a 0 divisor.  $\square$

## Theorem 20.8. Euler's Theorem

**Theorem. 20.8.** If  $a$  is an integer relatively prime to  $n$ , then  $a^{\varphi(n)} - 1$  is divisible by  $n$ . That is,  $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .

**Proof.** For integer  $a$  relatively prime to  $n$  there exists  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $0 < a + kn < n$ . Notice that  $b = a + kn$  is relatively prime to  $n\mathbb{Z}$  (if  $n$  and  $b$  have a common factor, then the factor would have to divide  $a$  but then  $a$  and  $n$  would not be relatively prime). In other words, the coset  $a + n\mathbb{Z}$  of  $n\mathbb{Z}$  contains an integer  $b < n$  and relatively prime to  $n$ . Since  $a$  and  $b$  from the same coset, then  $a \equiv b \pmod{n}$  and so  $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv b^{\varphi(n)} \pmod{n}$ . By Theorem 19.3,  $G_n$  consists of the elements of  $\mathbb{Z}_n$  which are relatively prime to  $n$  and so the order of  $G_n$  is  $\varphi(n)$ . Also,  $b \in G_n$ . Now  $b$  generates a subgroup  $\langle b \rangle$  of  $G_n$  of some order  $m$  which divides  $\varphi(n)$  (the order of  $G_n$ ) by Lagrange's Theorem. Now  $b^m \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$  (see the proof of Case II of Theorem 6.10) and so  $b^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ . Therefore  $a^{\varphi(n)} \equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ .  $\square$

## Theorem 20.10.

**Theorem.20.10.** Let  $m$  be a positive integer and let  $a \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  be relatively prime to  $m$ . For each  $b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ , the equation  $ax = b$  has a unique solution in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

**proof (continued).** By Theorem 20.6,  $a$  is a unit in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  (since  $G_n$  is a multiplicative group and so  $a$  has a multiplicative inverse,  $a^{-1} \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ ). So  $ax = b$  implies  $a^{-1}ax = a^{-1}b$  or  $x = a^{-1}b$  and this solutions is unique by the implication (as a result of the first that multiplication is the binary operation in  $G_n$ ).  $\square$

## Theorem 20.12.

**Theorem. 20.12.** Let  $m$  be a natural number and let  $a, b \in \mathbb{Z}_m$ . Let  $d = \gcd(a, m)$ . The equation  $ax = b$  has a solution in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$  if and only if  $d$  divides  $b$ . When  $d$  divides  $b$ , the equation has exactly  $d$  solutions in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ .

**Proof.** First, suppose  $s \in \mathbb{Z}_m$  in a solution of  $ax = b$ . Then  $as - b = qm = 0 \pmod{m}$  for some  $q \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Since  $d$  divides  $a$  and  $m$ , it must also divide  $b$ . So if  $ax = b$  has a solution then  $d$  divides  $b$ . Now suppose  $d$  divides  $b$ . Let  $a = a_1d$ ,  $b = b_1d$ , and  $m = m_1d$ . Then the equation  $as - b = qm$  can be written as  $d(a_1s - b_1) = dqm_1$  or  $a_1s - b_1 = qm_1$ . So  $as - b$  is a multiple of  $m$  if and only if  $a_1s - b_1$  is a multiple of  $m_1$ . So the solutions  $s$  of  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  are precisely the elements that satisfy  $a_1x \equiv b_1 \pmod{m_1}$ . Since  $a_1$  and  $m_1$  are relatively prime (by the choice of  $d$ ), then there is one solution  $s$  to  $a_1x \equiv b_1 \pmod{m_1}$  in  $\mathbb{Z}_m$ , by Theorem 20.10. The elements of  $Z_m$  which reduce to  $s$  modulo  $m_1$  ( and hence are solutions to  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$ ) are  $s, s + m_1, s + 2m_1, \dots, s + (d - 1)m_1$ . These are the solutions to  $ax \equiv b \pmod{m}$  and therefore there are  $d$  solutions.  $\square$